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ABSTRACT

Designed as a tool to help social studies educators promote their discipline, this volume outlines the critical role of social studies in the K-12 curriculum and the part social studies educators must take in assuring that this role is understood and accepted by parents, school boards, and legislators. Material is divided into four chapters. Chapter 1 outlines the essential role that the social studies play in the general school curriculum by cultivating "democratic" citizens. Chapter 2 defines the special nature of a democratic citizen as one who participates in social, political, and economic processes. It is suggested that the development of such citizens through active, participatory learning experiences is one of the most potent contributions of a comprehensive social studies program. Examples of community-based and school-based social studies programs are provided. Chapter 3 reviews the research on political socialization that supports the claim that a strong social studies curriculum is needed in each of the 13 years of formal schooling. The final chapter outlines the role of the social studies teacher in advocating the social studies. Specific techniques for promoting social studies education by working with local media, promoting instruction of the Constitution, recognizing student achievement, building social studies networks, and promoting social studies to parents are discussed. (LP)

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CITIZENSHIP AND THE CRITICAL ROLE OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Walter Parker
University of Texas, Arlington

John Jarolimek
University of Washington

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FOREWORD

This volume does not attempt to trace the development of social studies education or examine alternative approaches to social studies instruction. Other volumes have done that quite well. It is a tool offered to social studies educators across the country who are coming to an awareness of the need to *advocate* social studies education, assuring its presence every day in all thirteen grades.

The critical role of the social studies, the authors point out, has fallen into the shadows of competing school and societal concerns. "If social studies is to be brought from the shadows to the curriculum limelight," they suggest, "its critical role must be widely understood and asserted. Social studies educators need to rise to the occasion. They need to clarify individually and in concert the importance of social studies education. And beyond being clear themselves, they need to become articulate advocates of social studies to students, parents, colleagues, building and central administrators, school boards, and legislators" (p. 34).

Chapter one is a brief, persuasive statement of the critical role played by the social studies in the general school curriculum. That role, the authors argue, is the cultivation of a particular kind of citizen—a "democratic" citizen. Chapter two goes to the heart of democratic citizenship: participation in social, political, and economic processes. The authors take a strong position that actual participation experiences are the most potent feature of a comprehensive social studies program. Chapter three reviews the research on political socialization to support the claim that a strong social studies curriculum is needed every day in each of the thirteen years of schooling. Finally, chapter four asks social studies educators to make the business of advocating the social studies their own personal business. Here, the question is put to the reader:

> What is happening in your classroom, your school, your district, and your state that others should know about and which, if they knew about it, would help build public and professional enthusiasm for the social studies? (p. 39).

Since each reader's professional setting is unique, no "recipes" are

offered for advocating the social studies. Instead, the authors provide several diverse examples of advocacy efforts.

This book, then, is a "user's manual." Sections of the book may be reproduced without permission. Readers are encouraged to use the book as they see fit to help promote social studies teaching and learning throughout the K–12 curriculum.

James E. Davis
Associate Director
ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education

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INTRODUCTION

Writing in 1840, when our republic was just over 50 years old, Alexis de Tocqueville warned Americans that voting was a necessary but insufficient aspect of citizenship. An occasional act of voting, he said, followed by another "relapse into dependency,"[1] is not the kind of citizenship needed if democracy is to be sustained. Neither is it the kind of citizenship needed if pressing social challenges are to be met head-on; if public procedures and institutions are to be supported, critiqued, and, when necessary, improved; if the global community is to survive and prosper, enriched and enlivened by the splendid diversity of its cultures.

The kind of citizenship needed is embodied in what we will call the democratic citizen. We will define this citizen as an informed person, skilled in the processes of a free society, who is committed to democratic values and is able, and feels obliged, to participate in social, political, and economic processes. We believe this kind of citizen is needed now as never before.

The people of planet earth are living in an extraordinary time. It is a time that is different in a number of ways from that in which any generation of human beings has ever lived. Consider that humanity now has the capacity to

- manipulate its own genetic structure;
- design a global communication and information network;
- eradicate starvation;
- live beyond earth's atmosphere.

And, humanity now has the ability actually to destroy itself with advanced weaponry. In *The Fate of the Earth*,[2] Jonathan Schell describes in wrenching detail the calamity that awaits the unleasing of the twenty thousand megatons of stockpiled nuclear bombs. He sobers the reader to the actual possibility of human extinction brought about by disputes over perceived national interests.

It is not sensationalism to suggest with the late Buckminster Fuller that humanity is in a sort of "final exam." Humanity is now equipped with technology that can be turned with each decision toward destruc-

[1]Alexis de Tocqueville, *Democracy in America* (New York: Washington Square Press, 1964).
[2]Jonathan Schell, *The Fate of the Earth* (New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1982).

tion or cooperation. Humanity is confronted, in other words, with choosing between an exclusive "you *or* me" world in which only some can survive and prosper and an inclusive "you *and* me" world in which virtually all can survive and prosper.

The times require democratic citizens whose participation in the social arena is undergirded by three fundamental perspectives: a pluralist perspective, a global perspective, and a constructive perspective.

At the heart of the **pluralist** perspective is a disciplined respect for human differences—differences of all sorts but particularly of opinion and preference, of race and religion, of ethnicity and, in general, of culture. The perspective is based on the realization that there is diversity among people and the conviction that this diversity is good. From this perspective, one seeks to understand and appreciate the multiplicity of cultural and subcultural differences among peoples. From this perspective, one regards the existence of ethnic and philosophical differences not as a problem to be solved but as a healthy, inevitable, and desirable quality of democratic group life. From this perspective came the Founders' determination to protect minorities from the majority. And, from it came the First Amendment, designed as Justice William O. Douglas said, "so as to permit a flowering of Man and his idiosyncracies."[3]

The **global** perspective involves the ability and the willingness to, in the words of Rene Dubos, think globally while acting locally. Citizens who have this perspective have a "cosmopolitan stance." They are citizens "who can capitalize on the world's resources and accumulated wisdom in making cooperative attacks on shared problems of people everywhere. . . ."[4] Citizens with a global perspective understand interdependence, value diversity, and identify not only with their own culture group and nation-state but with the world community as well.

The **constructive** perspective[5] involves competent participation in social, political, and economic processes as well as an ongoing critique of those processes. Committed to democratic beliefs, the constructive citizen questions the congruence of existing processes with the principles of freedom, justice, equality, responsibility, privacy, and diversity. Constructive citizenship is therefore more than the passive, uncritical acceptance of the status quo. It includes the ability to see

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[3]William O. Douglas, *Points of Rebellion* (New York: Random House/Vintage, 1970), 11.

[4]Louise M. Berman and Alice Miel, *Education for World Cooperation* (West Lafayette, IN: Kappa Delta Pi, 1983), 5.

[5]The definition of the constructive perspective given here is derived from Thomas S. Popkewitz, B. Robert Tabachnick, and G. Wehlage, *School Reform and Institutional Life: A Case Study of Individually Guided Education* (Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Press, 1981).

the taken-for-granteds in public affairs, to examine accepted practices, to engage in dialogue with others about the public and private good, and to conceive new arrangements that may be more compatible with democratic values and beliefs. It includes, too, the courage to take an unpopular position in the face of overwhelming social pressure to conform. Without constructive citizens in the past, it is likely that many previously accepted practices, such as patronage, the harassment of religious minorities, and the disfranchisement of women, blacks, and other cultural minorities, would never have been questioned and, to a degree, corrected.

These three perspectives are themselves interdependent and together shape the democratic citizen's participation in public life.[6] Cultivating these citizens is the special assignment of social studies education, and fulfilling this assignment is the central professional challenge faced by social studies educators today.

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[6]R. Freeman Butts integrates education for global interdependence, cultural pluralism, and civic cohesion in "International Human Rights and Civic Education," in *International Human Rights, Society, and the Schools*, Margaret Stimmann Branson and Judith Torney-Purta, eds., NCSS Bulletin #68 (Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1982).

1

THE CRITICAL ROLE DEFINED

> This is what freedom signifies for me: this acting towards what is not yet, this open-ended striving to bring into existence a better state of things.
>
> —Maxine Greene
> *Bad Times, Good Schools*, 1983

A miraculous meeting of minds just over two centuries ago produced the remarkable political system of the United States. It was a daring experiment, a democratic experiment, and clearly it remains an experiment for each succeeding generation of Americans. Will this democracy be preserved? Will its vision continue to unfold?

Maintaining a democracy is no easy task. Among political systems, democracies have been scarce and their incumbencies brief. No other system relies on citizens to rule themselves; none other assumes people themselves can and will solve intelligently and ethically the problems of the social arena. Other systems rely on their citizens for other things, namely for labor and obedience to the few who rule without popular consent, but only in democracies is there government of, by, and for the people themselves.

By definition, therefore, the success of a democracy, the endurance of its institutions, and the fulfillment of its vision, rests squarely on the willingness and ability of its citizens to face up to the responsibilities required of those who are to enjoy the rights of a free society. The knowledge, skills, values, and beliefs that comprise these citizens must be cultivated, and this cultivation is the unique assignment of the social studies.

This is its practical, daily task. *This is the critical role of the social studies.* In brief, sustaining and fulfilling the democratic way of life is the goal of social studies education; citizenship education is its means.

Of course, other areas of the school curriculum as well as other social agencies share the responsibility for citizenship education. The task

would be too great for the social studies curriculum alone. *Nevertheless, among the family, the community, the church, the media, the ethnic group, the school, and other agencies of citizenship education, it is the school that was created for the express purpose of developing citizens who would and could sustain the democratic experiment. Within the school, the social studies curriculum has been designated for the realization of this purpose.*

THE DEMOCRATIC CITIZEN

Citizenship is a legal concept defined in the 14th Amendment to the Constitution: "All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside." For those who obtain citizenship through birth, no preparation or requirements are imposed, and one *is* a citizen from the moment of birth. Thus, social studies programs are not preparing *future* citizens, as is often claimed, because most school children are already citizens. Instead, social studies programs aim at the development of a particular *kind* of citizen.

Numerous attempts have been made to identify those qualities that characterize the "good" citizen. Although the attempts to define citizenship in terms of specific qualities or behaviors have not been wholly successful, the results of such efforts nonetheless provide us with insights that can be useful in planning social studies programs. Almost without exception these compilations refer to the effective citizen as one who is informed, who has certain skills and abilities, who is committed to particular attitudes and values, and who participates in sociopolitical activities. It is significant that these same qualities are embodied in the legal requirements for citizenship in the naturalization process. *Thus, we conclude that the democratic citizen is an informed person, skilled in the processes of a free society, who is committed to democratic values and is able, and feels obliged, to participate in social, political, and economic processes.*

AN INFORMED CITIZEN . . .

Our society not only encourages but expects a considerable amount of citizen participation in decision making. This expectation applies to decisions regarding one's personal life as well as to public affairs. This being the case, the presumption is that individual citizens have

an adequate background of information in order to contribute to decision-making processes in an intelligent way. Although not all citizens are well informed, and none of us is well informed on all issues, we have to assume that uninformed people do not make wise decisions.

It is not possible to identify specific elements of information that *all* citizens need to know. In a general way, the expectation is that citizens be knowledgeable about the world in which they live and informed about the social forces in which their lives are enmeshed. Curriculum documents published by the National Council for the Social Studies indicate that subject matter for the social studies curriculum should be selected from such areas of knowledge as these:

History—of the United States and the world; understanding of and learning to deal with change.
Geography—physical, cultural, economic; worldwide relationships of all sorts.
Government—theories, systems, structures, processes.
Economics—theories, systems, structures, processes.
Law—civil, criminal, Constitutional.
Anthropology and sociology—cultures, social institutions, the individual, the group, the community, the society, humankind.
Psychology—the individual in intergroup and interpersonal relationships.
Humanities—the literature, art, music, dance, and drama of cultures.
Science—the effects of natural and physical science on human relationships.

It is important to stress that social studies programs for today's children and youth need to include but go beyond the conventional social sciences for their sources of content. Moreover, subjects and topics selected for study need to be presented in terms of their contribution to the education of student citizens, rather than as ends in themselves. For example, when a social studies class examines ways of life in nonwestern cultures, the framing of the Declaration of Independence and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, or the impact of multinational corporations on national and local affairs, the purpose of the examination must transcend the study of anthropology, political science, and economics. The purpose must include *using* this knowledge to think more effectively about and participate in social, political, and economic processes.

This does not mean that everything in the social studies must be immediately practical and useful to the solution of everyday problems. A particularly inspiring teacher of history, for example, is making an enormous contribution to the education of young people by providing

them a historical context in which current problems can be studied. But it does mean that the social studies curriculum should inform students with knowledge related to the real needs of individuals and groups living in a dynamic, diverse and shrinking world.

The *Curriculum Guidelines* of the National Council for the Social Studies are explicit on this point:

> . . . The question about appropriate sources of knowledge for social studies is indeed well-phrased in terms of "needs" of students and society, rather than the arbitrary and limiting assumption that social studies and the social sciences are identical.
>
> Broadly based social issues cross the boundaries of the academic disciplines. The notion that the disciplines must always be studied in their pure form or that social studies content should be drawn only from the social sciences is insufficient for a curriculum intended to demonstrate the relationship between knowledge and rationally-based social participation. . . . Social studies is something more than the sum of the social sciences.[7]

A SKILLFUL CITIZEN . . .

No matter how well informed citizens are when they leave school, they will soon find their information base inadequate for their needs. At the same time, they will find their ability to process information inadequate to the ever-expanding quantity and complexity of information available. To prepare for this inevitability, the social studies program should help students develop skills that will allow them to continue learning and participating for a lifetime and, in so doing, sustain and fulfill the democratic experiment. These skills may be grouped into three categories:

acquiring information: such as reading to gain meaning; distinguishing between fact and opinion; using and evaluating various sources of information; using maps and graphics.

organizing and using information: such as identifying relevant factual material; placing data in tabular form; noting cause and effect relationships; identifying key ideas; generating theories; proposing a plan of action based on information.

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[7]*Curriculum Guidelines* (Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1979).

interpersonal relationships and social participation: such as communicating beliefs, feelings, and convictions; assisting in goal-setting for a group; keeping informed on issues that affect society; working individually or with others to decide on appropriate action.

If we think of problem solving as motivating the need for information, the three groups of skills identified in the foregoing paragraph follow each other sequentially. For example, let us say that a citizen, Mr. Jackson, is concerned about a proposed housing development in his neighborhood, and that he wants to influence the decision-making process. He will need to inform himself about such things as zoning ordinances, the right of eminent domain, restrictive covenants, and the intentions of the developers. Since his major concern is with the development's impact on life in his neighborhood, he will need to compile an environmental impact statement. There is much to be considered: What will be the impact on rents in the neighborhood? What income group will the development attract, and what income groups will it displace? What ethnic groups will be affected, and how? Will the neighborhood be "gentrified" while the less affluent and elderly residents are forced out? Will the population density increase? Decrease? How will the schools, public transporation, and other services be affected? What are the aesthetic qualities of the proposed development? What attention has been given by the developers to securing community involvement in the decision making? Who are the developers, and what reputation have they established?

Where can Mr. Jackson go for information on these topics, and what does he need to do when he gets there? How can he learn from the experience of others who have faced a similar problem? If he is to be successful in his search, he will need to apply skills having to do with acquiring the information he needs. Let us presume he now has the information available to him, how does he organize it so that it will be useful to him? Should it be a list of facts? A summary? A policy critique? A pamphlet? An outline? The next step has to do with his applying the information to some form of social action. Does he share the information with his neighbors and collectively take action? Or, does he speak for himself at a public hearing? In either case, he is using skills dealing with interpersonal relationships and social participation.

Skills are among the most imporant learnings that filter out of a social studies program. They are also the most enduring, continuing to be useful to the learner throughout his or her lifetime.

COMMITTED TO DEMOCRATIC VALUES . . .

Every society has ways of shaping the behavior of young people consistent with the values of that society. Our country is no exception to that generalization. Values are standards or criteria against which individual and group behavior is judged. Beliefs reflect commitment to those values. Through family life, community living, and school experiences, young citizens are expected to internalize a belief system that characterizes the behavior of people of the United States. Such values as freedom, justice, equality, responsibility, privacy, and diversity rank high as general values to which we are committed as a nation. We expect and depend on people to do what is "right" most of the time—to obey the laws, pay their taxes, drive on the right side of the road, treat others in humane ways. But in this society we also like to think that the young are taught to be critical thinkers and problem solvers. In our society, young citizens need to be socialized into the system to permit orderly living, but at the same time they should be taught to be constructive social critics of the system. It is through thoughtful and courageous criticism by citizens that the democratic system is improved.

People's behavior quite clearly is guided more by the beliefs they hold than by the information they have. The evidence that ours is a multicultural and interdependent society in a multicultural and interdependent world is overwhelming, yet ethnocentric and chauvinistic behavior often prevails. Similarly, the evidence of a relationship between the use of seatbelts and injuries in automobile accidents seems convincing, yet this information evidently does not affect the actions of a great many people who behave otherwise. To cite other examples would belabor an obvious point: people behave in accordance with what they want to believe even in the face of persuasive evidence to the contrary. Information does, however, contribute to the formation of values or even to changing values and beliefs already held, providing the individual believes that the information is valid and that its source is credible.

When beliefs change, so does the behavior of citizens. We do not believe the same things about minorities as we did even thirty years ago. We are changing our beliefs about the role of women in this society. Beliefs about our relationship with the global community continue to change. We are changing our beliefs about what the handicapped can and cannot do. Through the years the beliefs of Americans have changed in many other arenas of society: child labor, labor unions, segregated education, social security, health care, minimum wages,

the use of life-support systems, pollution of the environment, civil rights, due process of the law, free education to all children of all the people, to name a few. All of these arenas have witnessed behavior changes in Americans that would not have been thought possible even a few years ago. Undoubtedly these changes occur cross-generationally. That is, today's teachers sow the seeds of social change for the next generation of adult decision makers. This is a powerful, yet often overlooked, role of the social studies teacher. It is central to building in students the beliefs and perspectives that will guide their participation in public affairs.

Competent participation in the social arena is the heart of democratic citizenship; it is, therefore, the focal point of the social studies curriculum. Knowledge, skill, and commitment to democratic values are, without action, impotent. The critical role of the social studies is to cultivate individuals who are knowledgeable, skillful, and committed to democratic values. These qualities are cultivated not as ends in themselves, but as springboards for participation in social, political and economic processes.

II

PARTICIPATION: THE HEART OF DEMOCRATIC CITIZENSHIP

Whatever students of the social studies learn should impel them to apply their knowledge, abilities, and commitments toward the improvement of the human condition.

—National Council for the Social Studies
Curriculum Guidelines, 1979

One scholar has said the subject of citizenship participation "is like grabbing hold of a marshmallow; it is more rhetoric than reality."[8] There have been numerous attempts by educators to get beyond the rhetoric by incorporating citizenship participation experiences in the social studies curriculum. Some of these programs have extended beyond the school building to the community, involving students in citizen action projects or as volunteers in service agencies and as interns in the offices of politicians and civil servants; others have remained in the school building where students study the competencies of citizenship participation, reflect on their own participation, and develop some of the requisite skills; still other programs have tried to do both.

It is difficult to imagine a more potent feature of a comprehensive social studies curriculum than actual citizenship participation. In participation experiences, students are provided opportunities to apply, extend, and examine the knowledge, skills, and values they have developed. They are immersed in a heterogeneous social milieu in which there are tasks to be managed, conflicts to be resolved, information to be gathered, alternatives to be weighed, decisions to be made, and moral dilemmas to be thought through. Participation experiences are by nature public and interactive. They can expose students to a rich

[8]Stuart Langton, ed., *Citizen Participation in America* (New York: Heath, 1978), 13.

variety of people, values, ethnic and religious identities, and problem-solving approaches. Consequently, participation experiences demand communication and encourage taking others' perspectives.

Such experiences seem to stimulate students' intellectual and moral development, and this development is necessary if democratic citizenship is to be cultivated—that is, if citizens are to understand and support abstract, principled documents like national constitutions, the Declaration of Independence, and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights; if they are to construct in their own minds (rather than only memorizing) concepts like pluralism, justice, interdependence, and equality; if they are to conceive of themselves as citizens of the globe and the nation simultaneously; if they are to value diversity and freedom while grasping their responsibility for the public good; and if they are to struggle successfully through their own ethnocentric inclinations and extend civil liberties even to people with whom they vehemently disagree.[9]

In this section, we will sketch three approaches to citizenship participation. We hope by doing so to stimulate the reader's thinking about what needs to be done in his or her school or district. First, however, we must note that any approach reflects an underlying conception of citizenship participation. These conceptions vary widely and stretch along a continuum from narrow to broad. The narrower views of citizenship participation include only overtly political behavior such as voting and campaign activity. The broader views include a wide spectrum of behavior, behavior that many persons may not consider political.

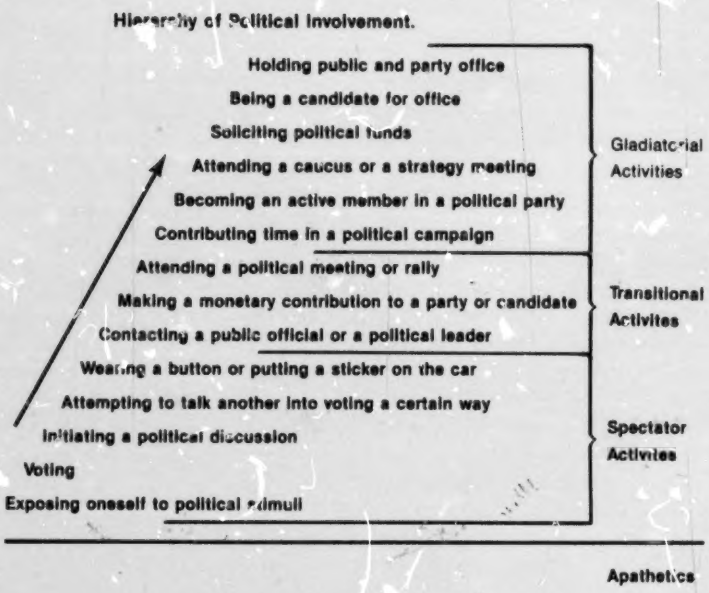
THE NARROW VIEW

A classic illustration of a narrow view of citizen participation is the work of political scientist Lester Milbrath. Milbrath focuses solely on "political participation" and defines it as "behavior which affects or is intended to affect the decisional outcomes of government. The politics of non-governmental organizations (e.g., churches and corporations) are excluded from this definition."[10]

Within these confines, a hierarchy of political involvement in democratic processes was developed—a hierarchy around which social

[9]The importance of cognitive and moral development in citizenship education is presented in a special section of the April, 1976 issue of *Social Education* (Vol. 40, no. 4). See also Edwin Fenton, "The Implications of Lawrence Kohlberg's Research for Civic Education," in National Task Force on Citizenship Education, *Education for Responsible Citizenship* (New York: McGraw Hill, 1977); and, *Developmental Perspectives on the Social Studies*, Linda W. Rosenzweig, ed., NCSS Bulletin #66 (Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1982).

[10]Lester Milbrath, *Political Participation* (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1965), 1.


Hierarchy of Political Involvement.
Holding public and party office
Being a candidate for office
Soliciting political funds
Attending a caucus or a strategy meeting
Becoming an active member in a political party
Contributing time in a political campaign
Attending a political meeting or rally
Making a monetary contribution to a party or candidate
Contacting a public official or a political leader
Wearing a button or putting a sticker on the car
Attempting to talk another into voting a certain way
Initiating a political discussion
Voting
Exposing oneself to political stimuli
Gladiatorial Activities
Transitional Activites
Spectator Activites
Apathetics

studies educators who share the narrow view might plan citizenship participation experiences for their students. The hierarchy is both cumulative and conservative. It is cumulative because persons involved at the top of the hierarchy are most likely involved in the processes in the lower ranks as well. It is conservative because demonstrations, strikes, civil disobedience, or other processes intending to challenge or disrupt the routine flow of the political processes are not included.

Milbrath believes that persons involved in processes ranking low on the hierarchy confine their participation to these lower levels. However, as people become more involved in citizenship participation, their repertoire of participation behavior expands, and they move up the hierarchy to the more demanding, and less frequent, forms of participation. Consequently, social studies educators who share this narrow conception would want to plan participation opportunities arranged hierarchically to help students develop a wide array of political experience, thus encouraging their willingness to engage in the more demanding citizenship tasks.

Citizens are believed to cluster into three participant roles. One group, which Milbrath calls the "apathetics," participates only passively and engages in none of the processes on the hierarchy. Another

group, the "spectators," is minimally involved in some or all of the first five forms of participation shown in the hierarchy. A third group participates in these five activities and is also "drawn into the political fray; they attend meetings, campaign, become active in a party, solicit money, run for and hold public and party offices."[11] Milbrath's metaphor is colorful:

> This division is reminiscent of the roles played at a Roman gladiatorial contest. A small band of gladiators battle fiercely to please the spectators, who have the power to decide their fate. The spectators in the stands cheer, transmit messages of advice and encouragement, and, at given periods, vote to decide who has won a particular battle (election). The apathetics do not bother to come to the stadium to watch the show. Taking a cue from the roles played in gladiatorial contests, the three political participation roles will be called "apathetics," "spectators," and "gladiators."[12]

THE BROAD VIEW

Others view citizenship in much broader terms, seeing citizenship behavior in the many domains of one's life. According to this conception, people are citizens in their social clubs, peer groups, labor unions, and schools as well as their cities, states, and country. Richard Remy has been an articulate proponent of the broader view. He suggests that citizenship "involves the rights, responsibilities, and tasks associated with governing the various groups to which a person belongs."[13]

This view is less dependent upon government decision making, per se. Instead, it focuses on the essence of the democratic experiment, self-governance, but locates it within all of one's groups. The broader view acknowledges as citizenship participation one's involvement in the governance of the family, school, labor union, town, legislature, peer group, church group, homeowners' association, political caucus, campaign organization, classroom, the work place, the global community, civic service group—all groups in the social arena which survive through some sort of governance.

Consequently, the broad view includes a wider range of participation opportunities for social studies students and thereby recognizes a greater number of situations in which citizenship participation can be practiced and examined. As Remy points out,

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[11]Ibid., 20.
[12]Ibid.
[13]Richard C. Remy, *Handbook of Basic Citizenship Competencies* (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, no date given), 62.

> [A] narrow conception of citizenship largely overlooks the political interactions which occur in daily life in such settings as homes, schools, and clubs. As a result, citizenship is perceived as being largely divorced from the experiential world of all but the oldest students. Educational programs based on this narrow view of citizenship are not likely to be personally meaningful for students; they tend to treat students as passive learners who are not yet participants in governmental institutions.[14]

The three approaches sketched below are based on the broad conception of citizenship.

A COMMUNITY-BASED PROGRAM

Five forms of citizenship participation in the community have been described by Dan Conrad and Diane Hedin. They give examples of each.[15]

1. Social/Political Action: Programs focused on student efforts to influence public decision making. For example:

- involvement in political campaigns
- attending caucuses and political meetings
- joining party and candidate organizations
- working with legislators
- forming research or lobby groups around a particular issue
- representing youth on local government committees and commissions
- operating a local consumer action service, receiving and resolving consumer complaints
- producing media documentaries of local problems

2. Community Projects: Volunteer social action that is associated with a volunteer agency and directed toward ameliorating a particular need. For example:

- serving as health consultants by staffing health and counseling offices in schools; making presentations to school, church, and youth groups; developing educational materials; working in health clinics and youth hotlines; and doing "leaning against the locker" consultation with peers

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[14]Ibid., 61.

[15]Dan Conrad, and Diane Hedin, "Learning and Earning Citizenship Through Participation." In James P. Shaver, ed., *Building Rationales for Citizenship Education*, NCSS Bulletin #52 (Arlington, VA: National Council for the Social Studies, 1977), 62–69.

- helping a local facility, such as a senior center or library, cut its fuel consumption by installing a solarized heating plant
- training and organizing younger students to accomplish a needed community service
- operating a community recycling center
- producing and distributing a community newspaper
- building parks to improve their neighborhoods
- decorating and repainting low-income housing

3. Volunteer Service: Placing students as volunteers in social service agencies. (Conrad and Hedin note an advantage of this type of participation to social studies educators who are initiating a participation program is that "needs are already identified, supervision and expert guidance is on the scene . . . and students are genuinely needed and thus assigned significant and responsible tasks.") For example:

- serving in nursing homes, the Red Cross, elementary schools, day care centers, schools for exceptional children, "meals on wheels," hospitals, employment agencies

4. Community Study: The application of social studies skills, such as conducting surveys and doing anthropological and historical research, to community needs. For example:

- surveying community attitudes about real issues for which survey data are needed by the city council, school board, student council, planning commission, etc.
- studying community institutions (for example, students might learn about criminal justice in jails, courts, and attorneys' offices; about health care in hospitals; about economics in banks and welfare offices; about city politics in council chambers and neighborhood action centers)
- conducting foxfire-type oral history studies in which students research the history of their area, interviewing older citizens and producing newspapers and pamphlets

5. Internships: Students spend time with an adult having an artistic, occupational, or academic experience of interest to the student. For example:

- spending a few hours per week or day with mayors, prosecutors, judges, lawyers, newspaper editors, artists, businesspersons, welfare workers, school officials, social workers, unemployment officers, parole officers

A COMMUNITY- AND SCHOOL-BASED APPROACH

Fred Newmann, Thomas Bertocci, and Ruthanne Landsness[16] have developed a high school citizen action curriculum that is at once comprehensive and interdisciplinary and focuses on both the school and the community. While no brief treatment could do it the justice it deserves, we will try to convey its essence.

Newmann and his colleagues derived their citizen action curriculum from a broad conception of citizenship which views citizen competence as "the ability to exert influence in public affairs."[17] Their curriculum would engage eleventh or twelfth grade students for most of the school day in systematic classroom study, field observation, and participation experiences. Students would earn four academic credits, two in social studies and two in English, and have time to take one additional course during this unique year as well as participate in extracurricular activities.

There are six components to this curriculum, and in all components seven citizenship competencies are developed. The components include three courses: a political-legal course, a communication course, and an "action in literature" course. There is also a community service internship emphasizing responsible volunteer service, and a citizen action project emphasizing advocacy, negotiating, and seeking influence in public affairs. And, there is a public message developed by each citizen action group to communicate to the public the results of students' work and to help students interpret their participation experience.

Seven citizenship competencies are reinforced in each component. They are:

1. communicating effectively in spoken and written language;
2. collecting and logically interpreting information on problems of public concern;
3. describing political-legal decision-making processes;
4. rationally justifying personal decisions on controversial public issues and stategies for action with reference to principles of justice and constitutional democracy;
5. working cooperatively with others;
6. discussing concrete personal experiences of self and others in ways

[16]Fred M. Newmann, Thomas A. Bertocci, and Ruthanne M. Landsness, *Skills in Citizen Action: An English-Social Studies Program for Secondary Schools* (Madison, WI: Citizen Participation Curriculum Project, University of Wisconsin, 1977).

[17]Ibid., 4.

that contribute to resolution of personal dilemmas encountered in civic action and that relate these experiences to more general human issues; 7. using selected technical skills as they are required for exercising influence on specific issues.

A SCHOOL-BASED APPROACH

The Citizenship Development and Global Education Program of the Mershon Center has developed some impressive instructional materials. They do not, unlike the citizen action curriculum just described, require the restructuring of a grade level and the school day. Instead, they are flexible classroom materials that can be inserted into the existing social studies curriculum. Once taught, they can be used repeatedly to analyze classroom, school, and governmental decisions and to explore the decision making behind current and historical events.

These materials seek the development of basic competencies of citizenship participation through classroom activities closely related to the students' own experiences. The activities use the classroom as a microcosm of the broader society; consequently, while the activities occur in the classroom, they incorporate in their design key elements of field-based participation activities: experience-based content, active learning, exposure to diverse viewpoints and ways of thinking, opportunities to grapple with the practical problems of group participation, and valuing.

The materials include a manual of twenty-five decision-making activities for grades 4 through 9.[18] The activities in the manual go to the heart of citizenship pedagogy. They develop students' knowledge *about* citizenship decision making while engaging them *in* actual decision-making experiences. The first unit helps students develop an awareness of decision making. Carefully designed learning activities help students become conscious of the decisions they are already making, distinguish political from non-political decisions, and learn to identify decisions caused by conflict and scarcity. The activities in unit two help students develop other decision-making skills. Students practice generating alternatives, anticipating consequences, and using values and decision-making skills to decide how to vote in an election. Unit three engages students in activities that build their awareness of how decisions affect them. Students map the effects of decisions involving safety, the environment, and sports; they practice applying

[18]Roger La Raus, and Richard C. Remy, *Citizenship Decision-Making: Skill Activities and Materials, Grade 4–9* (Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley, 1978), 63.

criteria for judging the effects of decisions about school discipline and energy problems; and they examine global decision making occurring in their own communities. In unit four, students develop their competence in influencing decisions. They compare methods of influence depicted in cartoons, engage in role playing and simulations, and practice using information to influence a teacher's decision.

This thorough manual includes bulletin board ideas, a glossary of decision-making vocabulary, student handouts, and suggested student reading to supplement each activity. The teacher inservice suggestions help pave the way for the implementation of these activities, in part or as a whole, in the social studies curriculum.[19]

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[19]Descriptions of other school-based citizen participation programs can be found in Elsa R. Wasserman, "Implementing Kohlberg's Just Community Concept in an Alternative High School," *Social Education* (April 1976), vol. 40, no. 4, 203–207; JoAnn Shaheen, "Cottage Lane: A Student Government Program That Works," *Social Education* (May 1980), vol. 44, no. 5, 387–390; Jada Koblas, "Responsibility and Freedom: It Works in Our Schools," and Ellen Sampson Grundfest and Doug Jenisch, "It All Fits Together: A Case Study of Citizenship Experiences in Upper Valley High School," both chapters in *Democratic Education in Schools and Classrooms*, Mary A. Hepburn, ed., NCSS Bulletin #70 (Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1983).

III

SOCIAL STUDIES EDUCATION: EVERY DAY, EVERY GRADE

> Everywhere the potential operations of a higher level are actualized by their embodiment in lower levels which makes them liable to failure.
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> —Michael Polanyi
> *The Study of Man*, 1959

The emergence of citizens who are informed, skilled participants in democratic processes, and who are guided in their participation by a disciplined commitment to democratic values does not just happen as a result of ordinary living. The early experiences of the republic demonstrated this to be the case. In the early 1800s, national leaders expressed great concern over the lack of preparation of the American people to participate in government. At that time, property ownership qualifications for voting were being rescinded, increasing numbers of public offices were being made elective, there was more voter participation, and the influx of immigrants was increasing rapidly. In the face of these emerging social realities, there was a growing diversity in the spoken and written language and a high level of illiteracy. Horace Mann took the case for free public education to the Boston board of education in 1845. There he said,

> The great moral attribute of self-government cannot be born and matured in a day; and if children are not trained to it, we only prepare ourselves for disappointment if we expect it from grown men. . . . As the fitting apprenticeship for despotism consists in being trained to despotism, so the fitting apprenticeship for self-government consists in being trained to self-government.[20]

[20]Horace Mann, *Ninth Annual Report of the Secretary of the Board of Education, Boston, December 10, 1845* (Boston: Dutton and Wentworth, 1846).

It was obvious that citizens were not being prepared adequately for the responsibilities of people in a democratic society, and out of this concern came the development of the common school in America with education for citizenship as its goal.

CITIZENSHIP IS LEARNED

Human beings are unique among living creatures in many ways but perhaps most profoundly in the degree to which they must learn to be who they are and to do what they do. There is nothing "natural" about preferring eggs for breakfast; there are cultures which find the thought of eating eggs at any time abhorrent. There is nothing innately correct about saying "thank you" when receiving a gift; there are cultures where it is the giver who says "thank you." While the examples of the primacy of culture over instinct, of learning over biological programming, in human development are innumerable, the underlying point is key to understanding why social studies is an essential component of the school curriculum: the "political self,"[21] that highly complex amalgamation of orientations, loyalties, beliefs, knowledge, skills, and behavior is *learned*. Such learning takes time, and it must begin early in life.

That early learning weighs heavily on the kinds of adults we will become is, of course, well known. Much of society's normative order is based on the maxim that the foundation for adult beliefs, knowledge, skills, and behavior is established in childhood. For this reason, parents want their children to have competent teachers, less violence on Saturday morning television, wholesome peers, and a moral upbringing. In whatever ways our values lead us to define "wholesome peers" and "moral upbringing," these desires for our children are rooted in the fundamental belief that early learning makes a critical difference in a person's adult life.

Social science scholars generally accept the power of early learning in the development of the political self but do not agree about when this learning occurs most readily. Three points of view can be identified.[22] One considers the years of early childhood to be the most important in the formation of the political self; another considers late childhood and early adolescence the critical years; still another points to

[21]George Mead, *Mind, Self, and Society* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934).

[22]Extensive discussions of the three models can be found in Robert Weissberg, *Political Learning, Political Choice and Democratic Citizenship* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1974); and Richard E. Dawson, Kenneth Prewitt, and Karen S. Dawson, *Political Socialization*, 2nd ed. (Boston: Little, Brown and Company, 1977).

late adolescence and the adult years.

According to the first view, the core of the political self is formed in the early years of one's life.[23] It is comprised of fundamental orientations to political institutions, figures, and symbols. Examples might include feelings of affection for policemen, the president, and national heroes, such as Thomas Jefferson and Martin Luther King; attachment to slogans, such as "Give me liberty or give me death" and "Life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness"; positive identifications with the flag, the White House, and the Declaration of Independence; and loyalty to the ethnic group, the state, and the nation. This core of basic political attachments is considered to be quite stable, relatively unaltered by later political learning.

A second view considers the years of late childhood and early adolescence as the most critical in the development of the political self.[24] The focal point in this view, however, is not the formation of basic loyalties but the development of general knowledge about political phenomena. Examples include knowledge about the procedures and institutions of constitutional democracy; about minority rights, majority rule, due process, and trial by peers; about the citizen role; about avenues of participation and influence on public policy; about partisan politics, precinct meetings, conventions, and party bosses.

A third view considers late adolescence and adulthood the critical period for political learning.[25] According to this view, actual citizen involvement is the richest source of political learning, and it is not until individuals have matured beyond childhood that they can really profit from it. These researchers stress that the complexity of the issues, circumstances, and relationships accompanying actual participation requires a level of cognitive functioning greater than that possessed by children and early adolescents. Competent civic participants, they conclude, develop their skills not by studying democratic processes as youngsters in school but by participating in them as adults, by jumping into the fray and learning from experience.

The three views appear at first to contradict one another, each claiming a different age to be critical for political learning. However, they are complementary, together helping to explain the development of the political self through the years of a person's life.[26] Accordingly, the

[23]For example, see David Easton and Jack Dennis, *Children in the Political System: Origins of Political Legitimacy* (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1969).

[24]For example, see Fred Greenstein, "The Benevolent Leader Revisited: Children's Images of Political Leaders in Three Democracies," *American Political Science Review*, (December 1975) vol. 69.

[25]Gabriel A. Almond, and Sidney Verba, *The Civic Culture* (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1963).

[26]Weissberg, *Political Learning, Political Choice and Democratic Citizenship*; and Dawson, Prewitt, and Dawson, *Political Socialization*.

political learning occurring in early childhood establishes the basic orientations of a person's political identity and the later political learning of adolescence and adulthood adds knowledge and skills. A foundation is laid in the early years on which a structure is later built.

According to this single, broad view, the foundation and structure are comprised of different kinds of political learning. The foundation is comprised of a stable core of loyalties and identifications through which later learning must be filtered. Consequently, early learning exerts a powerful influence on later learning, defining the context in which it must fit. As an individual matures through adolescence and into adulthood, his or her political identity continues to develop with the acquisition of related knowledge and behaviors. An early-learned loyalty to the ideas of justice and diversity, for example, might be further developed in the middle school years by learning how the Bill of Rights has been applied to the protection of religious and ethnic groups, and then in high school with debates over controversial civil rights issues facing the Supreme Court and community surveys in which students generate demographic data about the kinds of diversity characterizing the local population. Similarly, an early-learned loyalty to the idea of the "human family" might be elaborated in late childhood by studying the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and comparing it to the constitutions of a variety of countries, including the United States. In high school, this learning could be further developed with oral histories of first or second generation immigrants who bring a personal perspective to the comparative study of human rights. Central to both examples is this important generalization: As the political self develops, later learning tends not to violate the early-learned loyalties and identifications. As one scholar put it, the "details" change, but the "basics" do not.[27]

In summary, the political self is learned; different kinds of political learning appear to occur in successive years of one's life; and each kind is essential to democratic citizenship. It is important to note that these kinds of learnings, these facets of the prism called the political self, are interdependent: A basic loyalty to the idea of democracy is impotent without the procedural knowledge needed for participation in democratic processes. Conversely, the procedural knowledge is pointless without loyalty to the idea of democracy. Likewise, a positive orientation to diversity is powerless until expressed through action, and that action is vacuous without knowledge of cultural differences, constitutional guarantees, and procedural norms.

The potency of the school and the social studies curriculum as agents

[27]Weissberg, *Political Learning, Political Choice and Democratic Citizenship*, 28.

for the preparation of democratic citizens depends significantly on the sort of citizenship education occurring in children's other environments. For example, the social studies curriculum is likely to have a greater impact on students whose home and peer environments contain very little citizenship education. Research suggests that the political orientations of children from families of lower socioeconomic status (SES) are influenced to a greater extent by the school environment than by their home or peer environments.[28] These children have fewer political discussions with their friends and families and fewer political materials at home than their classmates from middle and upper SES homes. Because these lower SES children receive less citizenship education outside the school environment, that which occurs within it is all the more important.

We are not suggesting that citizenship education within the school environment is unimportant for students from middle and upper SES homes. Indeed, the opposite appears to be true. For these children, the social studies curriculum reinforces and further develops the political orientations developed initially at home. The fundamental beliefs, values, knowledge, and behaviors of democratic citizenship learned at home are, for these students, springboards for school learning. The social studies curriculum at home prepares them for the social studies curriculum at school and increases their ability to profit from it. For these students, the citizenship education acquired at school is therefore called "redundant,"[29] and it is probably because of this redundancy that these students tend to develop more confident political identities than do their lower SES classmates.

DIRECT AND INDIRECT POLITICAL LEARNING

As individuals interact with their environments, their citizenship education occurs in direct and indirect ways.[30] Direct citizenship education includes imitating the political behavior of role models, participation experience, and deliberate citizenship education. For example, children accustomed to frequent political discussions among family members at the dinner table and among their teachers in the hall at

[28]See Lee H. Ehman, "The American School in the Political Socialization Process," *Review of Educational Research* (Spring 1980), vol. 50, No. 1, 99–119; and Robert D. Hess and Judith V. Torney, *The Development of Political Attitudes in Children* (Chicago: Aldine Press, 1967).

[29]Kenneth P. Langton and M. Kent Jennings, "Political Socialization and the High School Civics Curriculum in the United States," *American Political Science Review* (1968), vol. 62, no. 3, 852–867.

[30]Dawson, Prewitt, and Dawson, 1977. Also see A. Barton and S. Mendlovitz, "The Experience of Injustice as a Research Problem," *Journal of Legal Education* (1960), 13: 24–37.

school are more likely to engage in them sooner or later themselves. Young people participating as volunteer workers in campaign offices and welfare agencies or taking a proposal for a shuttle bus to the city council develop citizenship knowledge and skills directly from this participation. And, social studies students who study the Bill of Rights and then apply it to local civil rights controversies are receiving deliberate, explicit citizenship education.

Indirect political learning occurs in two steps. Orientations, knowledge, and behavior are first acquired in apparently non-political contexts and later used in political contexts. For example, children who learn to speak one at a time during "show and tell" activities might later be disposed to listen before speaking in a discussion of political candidates or the impact of a proposed housing project. Likewise, students who learn to critique the author's frame of reference in a literature class might later do the same when listening to two public officials debate affirmative action programs. The interplay of direct and indirect learning through the successive years of development equips an individual with the unique repertoire of beliefs, knowledge, and skills that comprise his or her political self.

It is obvious that both direct and indirect political learning occur at school, and not all of it within the social studies curriculum. Indeed, the latent, "hidden" curriculum of the school provides students with very potent, indirect political instruction.[31] One only has to note the emphasis on punctuality, obedience, and conformity, or visit an elementary classroom in February with its striking decor focusing on historic national figures and the values associated with their lives to grasp the extent of the political learning occurring indirectly throughout the school environment.

The importance of the social studies curriculum in the preparation of democratic citizens does not, then, lie in the naive claim that without it no citizenship education would occur. Rather, it lies in the understanding that the social studies curriculum is that part of the school curriculum where *direct* citizenship education occurs. The absence of social studies from the curriculum would mean that what is virtually the only structured source of direct citizenship education would be missing. For the younger students, this would remove a direct program of citizenship education just when the foundation of the citizenship identity is being crystallized. For older students, this would remove a

[31]Discussions of the hidden curriculum can be found in Phillip W. Jackson, *Life in Classrooms* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968); Norman V. Overly, *The Unstudied Curriculum: Its Impact on Children* (Washington, DC: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1970); and Michael W. Apple, "The Hidden Curriculum and the Nature of Conflict," in *Curriculum Theorizing: The Reconceptualists*, William Pinar, ed., (Berkeley, Calif.: McCutchan, 1975).

direct program of citizenship education just when partisan affiliations are being examined and general civic knowledge acquired—just when they could profit most from instruction about, and direct participation in, democratic processes.

The cultivation of the special kind of citizen who is willing and able to meet the twin challenge of sustaining a democracy and fulfilling its vision is a process that should not be left to chance. The successful management of this process is, in our society, the critical role of the social studies curriculum. It requires, in the words of a task force of the National Council for the Social Studies, "a strong social studies program in all classrooms across the nation, every day, throughout each school year."[32]

SOCIAL STUDIES SCOPE AND SEQUENCE

Convinced that social studies is needed in each grade, social studies educators design scope and sequence plans. These are blueprints which provide a broad overview of the social studies curriculum from kindergarten through the twelfth grade. The term *scope* refers to the content (knowledge, skills, values, and beliefs) to be included in the K–12 social studies curriculum. *Sequence* refers to the order in which this content is to be arranged.

Social studies educators often differ sharply on what constitutes a desirable scope and sequence. Controversy abounds in discussions of these plans because of underlying diversity in philosophies of education and conceptions of social studies. Typically, in the United States the task of designing these blueprints is left to local school district curriculum developers and teachers who can, through face-to-face dialogue and debate, negotiate a scope and sequence narrow enough to provide substantive direction yet broad enough to permit and, indeed, encourage professional decision making and academic freedom. Striking this balance between narrowness and breadth while respecting the philosophic pluralism within the profession is the most challenging task confronting those who would design scope and sequence plans.

Scope and sequence planners need not begin "from scratch." Guidance and examples for the development of these 13-year plans are available. The most comprehensive sort of guidance can be found in the *Curriculum Guidelines*[33] of the National Council for the Social Studies. Nine guidelines are detailed in this publication:

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[32]National Council for the Social Studies Task Force on Scope and Sequence, "In Search of a Scope and Sequence for Social Studies," *Social Education* vol. 48, no. 4. (April 1984), 249–261.

[33]*Curriculum Guidelines* (Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1979).

1. The social studies program should be directly related to the age, maturity, and concerns of students.
2. The social studies program should deal with the real social world.
3. The social studies program should draw from currently valid knowledge representative of human experience, culture, and beliefs.
4. Objectives should be thoughtfully selected and clearly stated in such form as to furnish direction to the program.
5. Learning activities should engage the students directly and actively in the learning process.
6. Strategies of instruction and learning activities should rely on a broad range of learning resources.
7. The social studies program must facilitiate the organization of experience.
8. Evalution should be useful, systematic, comprehensive, and valid for the objectives of the programs.
9. Social studies education should receive vigorous support as a vital and responsible part of the school program.

Other sources of broad guidance include the SPAN reports and the GRASP model. The reports of Project SPAN,[34] a major study of social studies education undertaken by the Social Science Education Consortium, include an excellent, brief history of social studies reform efforts in the past 100 years and suggested alternatives to the current pattern of social studies education. At the heart of Project SPAN, however, is a sweeping research synthesis in which the current state of social studies education is assessed and described in detail. This synthesis provides critically important data to inform the work of scope and sequence planners.

The GRASP model[35] is a means for assessing, discussing, and evaluating social studies goals. It acknowledges the diversity of opinion among educators and the public about the purpose of social studies education and identifies five clusters of opinion. They are General education, Reflexive education, Active citizen education, Scholarly/Social science education, and Preserving citizen education. Scope and sequence planners can use the model to classify components of the existing social studies curriculum and as an aid in perceiving their own, often hidden, assumptions which shape their thinking about scope and sequence.

More specific guidance and sample scope and sequence plans are also available to local social studies planners. One source is the social

[34]Irving Morrissett, ed., *Social Studies in the 1980s: A Report of Project SPAN*, (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1982).

[35]Melvin Arnoff, "A Conceptual Framework for the Goals of Social Studies Education: The GRASP Model." A paper presented for the College and University Faculty Association (CUFA) of the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS), Detroit, 1981.

studies curricular framework developed in Maryland.[36] This framework clarifies the purpose and goals of social studies education and then suggests four alternative K–12 sequences for local implementation. Another source is a scope and sequence guide developed by a task force of the National Council for the Social Studies.[37] This guide illustrates in considerable detail the development of social studies knowledge, skills, values, and beliefs in a 13-year sequence. Also, four alternative sequences are provided for the sixth through twelfth grades.

The task force's guide moves away from two principles which have been traditionally the foundation of scope and sequence plans in social studies: the principle of expanding environments and the principle of increasing levels of complexity. Instead, it recommends a "holistic-interactive" approach.

> That is, content at *any* grade level should be presented in ways that provide, insofar as possible, a comprehensive view of a complex whole. Topics may be regarded as part of an interacting network that often extends worldwide. People everywhere arrange themselves in social groups and engage in basic social processes. The earth is the home of human beings no matter where they live individually. Potentially all human beings can share in the legacies derived from all cultures. Subject matter at all grade levels needs to be taught from a global perspective. This approach is *interactive* because everything relates to everything else; it is *holistic* because it casts events in their broadest social context.

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[36] *Social Studies: A Maryland Curricular Framework*. (Baltimore: Maryland State Department of Education). ED SO 015 189

[37] NCSS *Scope and Sequence*.

IV

ADVOCATING THE SOCIAL STUDIES

During times of material affluence we become engrossed in pursuing dollars; but when dollars are not available we seek, if we are wise, to raise the quality of education and attack some of the serious problems we face.

—Ralph Tyler
Phi Delta Kappan, 1982

Aim at nothing and, sure enough, you'll hit it.

—Anonymous

Planning a strong social studies curriculum to be taught and learned every day in every school year—this is the curriculum development task faced by social studies educators across the country. Promoting this curriculum as a vital part of the total school program is the accompanying task to which we now turn our attention.

Social studies education does not always enjoy the attention, resources, and commitment that are directed toward other subject areas, namely language arts, math, and science. A number of social forces are responsible, and two are prominent. First, the financial strain engendered by inflation and recession has been expressed in taxpayer revolts and public demands for accountability for results. These, in turn, have led to an unprecedented preoccupation with the "basics," or minimum competency education. The minimum has been interpreted widely to mean the "three R's" plus science, and all within a context of vocational preparation and national defense.

Second, for more than a decade, this nation has seen much concern with the *means* of curriculum but little concern with the *ends* of curriculum. While a good deal of attention has been directed by the research community toward increasing student achievement through improved teaching methods and school management, very little attention has been directed toward *what* students should achieve and what

kind of people they should become as a result of having achieved it. Improving the horse while neglecting the cart permits know-how to abound at the expense of proper consideration of the human objectives it was intended initially to serve. Of course, sophisticated instructional and organizational know-how should be developed. But, to what end? What is to be learned? What kind of people, and therefore what kind of world will be cultivated? Of course, educators should do everything they can to help students develop literacy, but literacy for what? Of course, teachers and schools should strive to become more "effective," but effective at doing what and for what ends?

The critical role of the social studies has fallen into the shadows of such forces and, consequently, has not been advocated forcefully outside the conference rooms of social studies conventions. Critical curriculum issues such as global and multicultural education, as well as the overarching goal of citizenship education, remain largely "in house" concerns among social studies professionals. If social studies is to be brought from the shadows to the curriculum limelight, its critical role must be widely understood and asserted. Social studies educators need to rise to the occasion. They need to clarify individually and in concert the importance of social studies education. *Beyond being clear about its importance themselves, they need to become articulate advocates of social studies to students, parents, colleagues, building and central administrators, school boards, and legislators.*

DOING WHAT IS NEEDED

Several years ago, Buckminster Fuller received a letter from a ten-year-old named Michael. The boy asked the renowned inventor, cartographer, poet, and global citizen about the relationship between thinking and doing. Fuller's response[38] was typical of what he had been thinking and doing for fifty years:

> Dear Michael,
>
> Thank you very much for your recent letter concerning "thinkers and doers."
>
> The things to do are: the things that need doing: that *you* see need to be done, and that no one else seems to see need to be done. Then you will conceive your own way of doing that which needs to be done—that no one else has told you to do or how to do it. This will bring out the real

[38]R. Buckminster Fuller, *Critical Path* (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1981), 38.

you that often gets buried inside a character that has acquired a superficial array of behaviors induced or imposed by others on the individual.

Try making experiments of anything you conceive and are intensely interested in. Don't be disappointed if something doesn't work. That is what you want to know—the truth about everything—and then the truth about combinations of things. Some combinations have such logic and integrity that they can work coherently despite non-working elements embraced by their system. . . .

You have what is most important in life—initiative. Because of it, you wrote to me. I am answering to the best of my capability. You will find the world responding to your earnest initiative.

Sincerely yours,

Buckminster Fuller

What is particularly inspiring about Buckminster Fuller's life and work was his commitment to seeing and doing what he perceived was needed. Equally inspiring was his insistence that he was an ordinary person, or as he put it, "just a little individual." He rejected adulation because he was convinced that anyone could do what he had done; that is, anyone can peer into his or her situation, see what is needed, and set about the task of meeting the need. Human commitment and initiative, not genius, spark the needed inventions.

Fuller's example could not be more appropriate for social studies educators today. Because social studies is critically important to the cultivation of democratic citizens, social studies educators must peer into their school settings and see what is needed, which, if attended to *by them*, would help social studies accomplish its goal. This means that each social studies educator must study the particular situation in which he or she is located, surveying it from his or her special vantage point—classroom teachers from the vantage point of the classroom, the "front lines" of schooling; department chairs from their departments; district and state social studies supervisors from their vantage points; and professors from theirs. Social studies educators in their unique situations seeing and doing what is needed to foster social studies education—this is what we mean by advocating the social studies.

There are two general types of needs: program development and program promotion. Consequently, most advocacy efforts will involve developing needed social studies programs and promoting existing programs. What programs need to be developed? At the risk of sound-

ing circular, whatever programs *need* to be developed to help social studies accomplish its goal. To whom must social studies be promoted? To whomever it needs to be promoted—to parents and students, to colleagues and policymakers, to building administrators and the community.

This emphasis on seeing and doing what is needed acknowledges the professional integrity of social studies educators and welcomes the differences among them. This view seeks neither orthodoxy nor unanimity but a broad coalition of thinking professionals striving toward citizenship education in ways that are inevitably diverse. Intellectual diversity among social studies educators is not a scourge to be overcome. Pluralism among social studies professionals, as within society, should be embraced as good news, not bemoaned as bad. What matters most is not that social studies educators come to agreement on the means of citizenship education, but that they develop citizenship education programs with thoughtful rationales, and then promote them.

SETTING AN EXAMPLE

Social studies educators should strive to be the kind of democratic citizens they say they aim to create. They should strive to be informed, skillful citizens who are committed to democratic values and beliefs, and who are willing, able, and feel obliged to participate in social, economic, and political processes.

Modeling is a powerful form of learning, but it is only one reason why social studies educators must practice what they preach. Another is that by struggling actually to *be* democratic citizens, educators involve themselves in the same process they expect of their students. This gives them the experiential base from which they can communicate with their students and colleagues, develop programs that cultivate democratic citizens, and promote the social studies curriculum to the public.

It is especially important that social studies educators model the three fundamental perspectives: the pluralist, global, and constructive perspectives. Social studies educators must represent, to their students and colleagues, persons who think globally and act locally, and who are loyal not only to their ethnic, community, and national groups, but to the global society as well. They must model a disciplined commitment to respecting cultural diversity and honoring the rich individuality of persons. School districts and classrooms have never been as diverse as they are now; consequently, each day provides innumerable opportunities for educators to model these perspectives—to prize,

practice, and publicly affirm them.

Similarly, in countless situations each day, social studies educators are provided opportunities to model the constructive perspective of the democratic citizen. Social studies teachers, specialists, supervisors, and professors all must exemplify individuals struggling against the mindless performance of daily routines, struggling for what Harold Berlak has called a heightened "consciousness of the forces that act on them and within them."[39] The constructive perspective enables social studies educators-as-citizens to examine the unseen assumptions that guide their own thinking and behavior, to see more effectively their situations, to see what needs to be done in them and, more broadly, to strive continually to close the gap between democratic principles and practices. James Shaver has said,

> It is not that social studies teachers, or other educators, are any less thoughtful about their assumptions than are other people. But lack of thoughtfulness on their part is of particular consequence because so much rests on their behavior: Citizenship education is critical to society.[40]

Another important aspect of setting an example goes beyond social studies educators modeling the knowledge, skills, values, and perspectives of democratic citizenship. We are referring to the broader issues of school climate and organization. Simply put, schools and classrooms cannot operate as dictatorships in which the highest virtues are obedience, submission, and conformity, and expect students to develop into democratic citizens. (Not only would such a situation be intellectually and morally absurd, but also it would be illegal. The Supreme Court has been clear that students cannot be required to shed their civil liberties at the schoolhouse door, but are indeed "persons" protected by the United States Constitution.)

Schools are groups, and students should be involved in some way with their governance. To the extent that students' informed participation is encouraged and their citizenship skills and beliefs given opportunities for expression, they are being democratic citizens. They are learning by doing. Similarly, classrooms are groups, and the way they are governed can help or hinder the cultivation of qualities associated with democratic citizenship.[41] Democratic, or "open," classroom

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[39]Harold Berlak, "Human Consciousness, Social Criticism, and Civic Education," James P. Shaver, ed. *Building Rationales for Citizenship Education*, NCSS Bulletin #52 (Arlington, VA: National Council for the Social Studies, 1977), p. 36.

[40]James P. Shaver, "The Task of Rationale-building for Citizenship Education," in *Building Rationales for Citizenship Education*, 97.

[41]An excellent discussion of democratic classrooms can be found in Ronald L. VanSickle, "Practicing What We Teach: Promoting Democratic Experiences in the Classroom," *Democratic Education in Schools and Classrooms*, Mary A. Hepburn, ed. NCSS Bulletin #70 (Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1983).

climates appear to help develop these qualities. Democratic classroom climates can be characterized as follows:

1. Students are provided opportunities to express their concerns and preferences for classroom procedures, aspects of the curriculum they will study, and the arrangement of the classroom.
2. Controversial issues are integrated into the course content.
3. Students are encouraged to express their opinions on all sides of controversial issues.
4. The teacher models respect for all students' opinions.[42]

Social studies educators, then, can help set a good example for the cultivation of democratic citizens by being democratic citizens themselves and by creating school settings that encourage student participation and the free exchange of opinions about controversial issues.

PROMOTING THE SOCIAL STUDIES

If social studies educators are to rise to the occasion, then they must increase their willingness to promote social studies actively. And, it must be promoted to persons outside the mutually reinforcing confines of social studies departments and conventions.

In the earlier decades of this century, school personnel were able to tend to the processes of schooling quite isolated from political debates. Edith Mosher has said of that period:

> Largely insulated from the political upheavals that did occur, most school personnel did not know, and felt they did not need to know, the intricacies of the system which controlled and funded their activities. They did not perceive that education is indeed a "political" enterprise in the sense that it has always engaged in a competitive struggle for tax dollars and public approval.[43]

We agree with Mosher that this "ostrich-like" posture has become a luxury school personnel can no longer afford. Financial restraints cou-

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[42]Compiled from Lee H. Ehman, "The American School in the Political Socialization Process," *Review of Educational Research* (Spring 1980), vol. 50, no. 1, 99–119; Judith V. Torney, A. N. Oppenheim, and Russell F. Farnen, *Civic Education in Ten Countries* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1975); Ralph L. Mosher, ed. *Moral Education: A First Generation of Research and Development* (New York: Praeger, 1980); Willis D. Hawley and Janet Eyler, "Teacher Behavior and Interest in the Ideas of Others: A Demonstration of the Influence of Teachers on Students' Democratic Values," a paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Montreal, 1983; Carole L. Hahn and P. Avery, "Value Analysis, Reading Comprehension, and Political Attitudes: Are They Connected?," a paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New Orleans, 1984.

[43]Edith K. Mosher, "Politics and Pedagogy: A New Mix," *Educational Leadership* (November 1980), vol. 38, no. 2, p. 10.

pled with increased competition for revenues from interest groups previously denied access to them has made the political nature of schooling more apparent. Teachers, supervisors, administrators, and other school personnel can no longer claim to be engaged in activity that is suspended somehow above the political fray. When what is at stake is the ultimate goal of the social studies—sustaining and fulfilling the democratic experiment—social studies educators will want to pull their heads from the sand and become inventive advocates of the social studies.

There are social studies programs, activities, and events occurring across the land that are contributing to the cultivation of democratic citizens. They should be promoted. They are not only worthy, they are newsworthy. The critical question put now to the reader is, *What is happening in your classroom, your school, your district, and your state that others should know about and which, if they knew about it, would help build public and professional enthusiasm for the social studies?*

Because advocacy is for many social studies educators a new undertaking, some sort of "advocacy education" is needed. Consequently, several examples of advocacy efforts have been assembled below. Our intention in this final section is to stimulate the reader's thinking about his or her own situation and what needs to be done there.

Example #1: Working With, Not Against, the Media

Below is an excerpt from a publication of the National Association of Elementary School Principals.[44] Though it is addressed to principals, its recommendations are equally relevant to elementary and secondary teachers, social studies supervisors, department chairs, and university professors—indeed anyone seeking to promote social studies programs by working with the media.

> Having someone at the central office maintain media contacts and arrange press coverage puts media relations where it belongs: part of a cohesive, overall PR plan, rather than a hit-or-miss affair.
>
> But even with the help of a district PR officer, the school principal is still the one in charge of the "show and tell" when a reporter or news team visits the school. To practice good media relations, the principal should remember these four simple rules:
>
> 1. *Be accessible.* When the PR director arranges a press contact for you, don't try to put it off or avoid it. Reporters work on tight deadlines,

[44]National Association of Elementary School Principals, "Work With—Not Against—The Media," *Here's How* (September 1982), vol. 1, no. 1.

so try to arrange your schedule to meet theirs instead of expecting them to accommodate you.

2. *Be realistic.* As exciting as a new project or program may seem to you, it is possible that nearby schools are already doing something similar, in which case neither the district PR officer nor the local press will be as interested as you are. Try to keep the activities of your school in perspective, and don't expect a news story for every school play or fair.

3. *Be prepared.* Have the facts at your fingertips when you meet the press. Newspaper reporters will appreciate written background information—especially correct spellings of names, exact numbers, and so on. And pay attention to scheduling, too. If a camera crew arrives to film the fifth-grade folk dance troupe, be sure they are in costume and ready to perform.

4. *Be honest.* If a new program you are excited about still has some bugs in it, be straightforward about what the problems are and what you are doing to solve them. A good reporter will spot hesitation or attempts to cover something up and will go elsewhere for the information. It is better to be candid and get your own perspectives across than to lose your credibility and run the risk that someone less well informed than you will give false information to the press.

What Makes News? What is considered a newsworthy education story varies from reporter to reporter and from newscaster to newscaster. As a general rule, the smaller your town, the more coverage you can expect in the local media. But wherever you live, there is one cardinal rule: *The most successful school news stories are built on a solid curriculum base.* A nationwide poll conducted by the Gallup organization found that the kind of school news people are most interested in is curriculum innovation—and why it is being introduced.

In "selling" such a story to the media, however, school PR experts find that it helps to have a "grabber"—a human interest angle, a special event, or an interesting photo opportunity.

For example, if your real story is a new K–6 global education curriculum, the grabber might be an international fair featuring foods, cultural artifacts, and speakers from other nations.

The solid story behind the grabber gives you a chance to let the public know about the real work of the school—and it heads off the criticisms of "fluff" before they can arise.

When You Do Your Own PR. Many principals do not have access to a school district PR officer who can do the legwork involved in getting press coverage of school news. For these principals—and in fact for others as well—here are some points to remember.

Get to know the members of the press and their needs. Keep a list of local education reporters and get to know them on a first-name basis. Find out what their particular interests are and the deadlines they face. Let

them know several days in advance if you are planning a special event and give them as much background information beforehand as possible.

Play fair with the media. Send the same news release and backgrounders to everyone on your list and set up a rotation schedule for exclusive coverage.

Piggyback stories when you can. Pointing out another story besides the one the news media are there to cover may pay off in two stories rather than one.

Practice the Golden Rule with the media. It never pays to treat a reporter poorly. Remember, the media have more clout than you do. Make members of the media feel welcome in your school, and never be patronizing toward them.

Be responsive and available. When a story breaks that you did not initiate, do not be afraid to be the spokesperson for your school. Respond promptly, courteously, and accurately to inquiries from the press. Don't try to suppress a story you fear may make your school look bad. Chances are it will come out anyway. And don't forget that you are always "on the record" with reporters. (If the issue is sensitive, you may want to make notes of what you told a reporter.)

Be professional. Don't ask to see a reporter's story before it is published or to have photographs returned. Don't expect the paper to provide you with copies of a story that has appeared in print. Don't call or write to complain about relatively minor errors in the stories. But do remember to compliment media contacts on particularly good coverage.

What If Things Go Wrong? The media can get bad news about schools without ever leaving their chairs—over the police radio or by telephone. Educators must make an extra effort to get good news to the media for their consideration.

But principals and PR officers have to realize that they cannot win them all. Sooner or later, a news story will include erroneous "facts" or take what you think is an unfavorable slant. When that happens, should you demand a retraction?

Most PR people think not. Only the most extreme of misquotes, misinterpretations, or misinformation should be called to the media's attention—and then in a constructive manner. Remember that criticizing a story that has already been aired or printed simply gives the matter greater prominence and runs the risk of damaging your carefully nourished relationship with the media.

As one veteran school PR officer has pointed out, educators who forget that the role of the media is to serve as the watchdog of the community do so at their peril. But to that warning should be added this thought: Just as a watchdog seldom bites the people it knows and trusts, the media are more likely to play fair with you if you have played fair with them.

Example #2: PROJECT '87. Promoting Instruction About the Constitution

The source document for the democratic experiment in the United States is the Constitution. As the 200th anniversary of the framing of the Constitution approaches, the American Historical Association and the American Political Science Association have undertaken a joint effort to improve student understanding and respect for the Constitution. The effort is called "Project '87." Some of the recommendations and plans of Project '87 are listed below.[45] Divided into five categories, the recommendations comprise an energetic and ambitious advocacy effort.

1. Federal and state agencies.

Federal agencies should:

- Provide financial support for special preservice and inservice training programs for teachers.
- Provide grants and contracts to support the development of print and nonprint instructional materials for grades kindergarten through twelve. This support may lead to textbooks, audiovisual materials, and school television programs. Sourcebooks providing lessons about the Constitution that might be included in existing courses are in particular demand.
- Disseminate information to school officials and others about existing legislation, regulations, and programs aimed at promoting school instruction about the Consitution.
- Provide grants to support research and evaluation on topics relating to instruction about the Constitution. . . .

State agencies should:

- Undertake activities that draw attention to the importance of teaching about the Constitution. Such activities might include:
  a. Sponsoring conferences about the Constitution for teachers and school officials.
  b. Encouraging teacher education institutions to provide teacher inservice education on teaching about the Constitution.
  c. Publishing legislative resolutions and governor proclamations relating to the importance of citizen knowledge of the Constitution.
- Determine whether licensing procedures for certification of teachers provide for knowledge about the Constitution.

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[45]Howard D. Mehlinger, "Conference Recommendations," *Teaching About the Constitution in American Secondary Schools*, Howard D. Mehlinger, ed. (Washington, DC: American Historical Association, 1981), 141–151.

- Draw the attention of school officials to existing mandates and regulations relating to requirements that high school graduates must understand the Constitution.

2. Professional associations.

- The National Assessment for Educational Progress should include items about the Constitution in its social studies/citizenship assessments.
- The National Council for the Social Studies should assume a major responsibility for promoting instruction about the Constitution among social studies teachers. NCSS should disseminate information regarding instructional materials on the Constitution and publish critical reviews of these materials in order that teachers can judge their appropriate use. NCSS should also encourage the inservice education of teachers, both through its own programs and those undertaken by others.
- The American Educational Research Association should encourage research on such topics as the impact of school life on children's understanding of the "rule of law" and on their beliefs about civil liberties.

3. Teacher educators.

- Teacher educators need more knowledge about the Constitution and constitutional processess. "Short courses," workshops, and faculty seminars that bring political scientists, historians, and social studies specialists together should be organized for the purpose of exploring ideas about the Constitution. Such programs would ultimately have an impact on courses for teachers.
- Teacher educators should conduct statewide assessments of instruction about the Constitution in elementary and secondary schools, including the amount of time devoted to instruction about the Constitution, the capacity of teachers to provide sound instruction, student knowledge about the Constitution by the time of their graduation from high school, and the availability of resources to promote improvements in instruction about the Con titution.
- Teacher educators should conduct self-assessments of existing programs to prepare social studies teachers.

4. Changes in textbooks.

- Include role-play exercises and other activities that encourage students to interpret the Constitution and its principles, checking their interpretations later with actual judicial opinions.

- Cite current instances impacting on the lives of students in which the Constitution is relevant and important.
- Emphasize conceptual learning whenever possible and provide opportunities for students to develop critical thinking skills and to grow in their capacity to deal with values.

5. *Project '87.*
- Should serve as a national coordinator or clearinghouse for teaching about the Constitution in American secondary schools.
- Establish a "blue ribbon" panel to decide which Constitutional topics are of greatest importance and how they should be incorporated into the existing school curriculum.
- Provide a continuing service to teachers and school officials requesting assistance.
- Establish a public relations program that provides articles, news releases, and television spots for the media that will build public awareness and support for promoting knowledge about the Constitution.
- Cooperate with such groups as the Agency for Instructional Television to provide new and improved programs on the Constitution that will reach students directly in their classrooms.

Example #3: Recognizing Individuals

A local council affiliated with the National Council for the Social Studies promotes social studies programs while acknowledging students *and* building its mailing list. First, the local council sends letters to social studies department chairs asking them to identify students who deserve special recognition as social studies students. The council will provide the number of award certificates requested by the chairs. When requesting the certificates, the department chair is asked to provide the names of the selection committee members along with the criteria used for selecting the recipients.

Second, the council sends letters to principals asking them to identify a social studies teacher other than the department chair who deserves special recognition for exceptional social studies program development or teaching. Again, the council provides the certificates requested. A third service provided by the council is the recognition of principals who have shown exceptional leadership in the social studies program of their schools. Letters are sent to superintendents asking them to identify such principals, and the council provides the certificates.

These social studies awards are, of course, newsworthy. The press should be contacted, interviews with recipients arranged, and the social studies programs or activities with which they are associated promoted. In each of the three cases, the local council is promoting social studies by recognizing individuals who are *doing* social studies, in whatever their capacity, and doing it well. The council is also locating social studies professionals who can be invited to participate in and contribute to the activities of the council.

Example #4: Building Camaraderie Among Social Studies Educators

Another local council promotes social studies by building relationships and networks among social studies teachers in the district. At the same time, dialogue about social studies programs is encouraged, interaction with the social studies supervisor is fostered, and area resources are highlighted. These ambitious objectives are accomplished when the local council sponsors luncheons for all social studies teachers on district inservice days. A speaker might share teaching strategies for citizenship education and awards might be presented to an outstanding social studies teacher and student. Also, membership in the local council is promoted by a fishbowl drawing for door prizes donated by merchants. And what goes into the fishbowl? Council membership cards, of course!

Example #5: A State Council's Position Statement

Numerous states are undertaking sweeping reforms in their curriculum requirements and strengthening their teacher education standards. It is imperative that the critical role of the social studies be asserted to the legislatures and their agencies responsible for developing requirements and standards.

Position statements are an important place to start. These statements bring social studies professionals together to clarify anew the purpose of social studies education, to articulate concerns, and to make recommendations. Furthermore, they serve as tools for other social studies educators striving to promote their programs. One such statement was written by a task force of the Texas State Council for the Social Studies and presented to that state's Commission on Standards for the Teaching Profession.[46] Included in this statement are "concerns" and "suggestions."

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[46]Texas Council for the Social Studies Task Force on Teacher Standards, *A Position Statement of the Texas Council for the Social Studies*, 1981.

Concerns.

The Texas Council for the Social Studies has long been concerned with the development and application of Standards for Social Studies Teachers. Many of our concerns relate to the Topics of Primary Interest as identified by the Commission in its communication inviting participation in Open Hearings. Among our chief concerns are:

1. the lack of knowledge of social science content, particularly in the areas of economics and geography, by many elementary and secondary teachers;
2. the lack of knowledge of social studies curriculum and methodology by some elementary and secondary social studies teachers;
3. the inadequacy of the student teaching experience in relation to content preparation required, quality of supervision, and time requirement;
4. the practice of placing inadequately prepared and minimally certified teachers in social studies teaching positions.

Suggestions

1. To remediate the lack of knowledge of social studies content, the Texas Council for the Social Studies suggests:

   a. that requirements for elementary certification mandate course work in economics, geography and global studies as well as multicultural United States history and government;
   b. that requirements for secondary certification in *any* social studies teaching field (Plan I or Plan II) mandate course work in economics, geography, and global studies as well as multicultural United States history and government;
   c. that prospective teachers be required to demonstrate this knowledge on a statewide assessment instrument prior to admission to student teaching or internship;
   d. that any statewide assessment instrument in the area of social studies be developed or selected and monitored by an advisory committee of Texas Social Studies educators operating under the direction of the Texas Education Agency Director of Social Studies.

2. To remediate the lack of knowledge of social studies curriculum and methodology, the Texas Council for the Social Studies suggests:

   a. that all prospective elementary and secondary social studies teachers be required to complete a course in social studies curriculum and methodology; and
   b. that all prospective secondary teachers with a social studies teaching field be required to spend a minimum of eight weeks, all day, in a social studies student teaching assignment.

3. To remediate the inadequacy of the student teaching experience in relation to the quality of supervision, the Texas Council for the Social Studies suggests:

a. that teachers in supervisory capacities be master teachers in their area of assignment as demonstrated by an appropriate School Based Teacher Educator certificate; and
b. that funding be provided to support quality supervisory programs.

4. To remediate the practice of placing inadequately prepared and minimally certified teachers in social studies positions, the Texas Council for the Social Studies suggests:

a. that emergency placement not be made at the secondary level unless the teacher has completed a minimum of 21 credit hours in social studies as a teaching field plus a social studies methods course;
b. that school districts not be allowed to utilize emergency placements if fully certified social studies teachers are available;
c. that extracurricular needs such as coaching positions not receive priority over social studies credentials in determining placement for social studies teaching positions.

Example #6: A Legislative Handbook

The California Council for the Social Studies has launched an assertive advocacy program. Its *Legislative Handbook*[47] describes the many advocacy activities and guidelines developed and/or supported by the Council. The *Handbook* includes descriptions of the roles of the Council's Legislative Committee, the Legislative Representative, and Political Action Cadres; it summarizes the political action of the Council since 1972; and, it describes a Legislative Day program established by the Council for the political education of social studies teachers from around the state. Below are excerpts from the introduction and the section describing the Political Action Cadres.

Introduction to the Legislative Handbook

The concept of democracy embraces the right and responsibility of citizens to participate fully in the processes of society. The California Council for the Social Studies believes this includes, as well, teacher-citizens actively involved while members of the state social studies councils. CCSS is concerned with more than just how a bill becomes a law. It is concerned about those legislative, bureaucratic and appointed board and commission decisions which impact social studies education in California.

[47] *Legislative Handbook* (Sacramento, Calif.: California Council for the Social Studies, 1981).

As a direct result of this position, CCSS members have participated actively in a wide variety of politically oriented activities relating to social studies education, vis-à-vis the State Legislature, the State Board of Education, and the State Department of Education. More specifically, this involvement has ranged from ad hoc interest to official representation and initiative. A state assessment of seventh grade social studies skills, the defeat of legislation which proposed to eliminate social studies in the elementary grades, a modification of the state textbook adoption matrix, and the completion of a new State Framework for History/Social Sciences were all impacted by CCSS monitoring, testimony and action.

Social Studies Political Action Cadre

Rationale

Specifically to support the goals stated by CCSS leadership, "CCSS must develop an effective network of social studies teachers to keep the leadership aware of specific problems and needs in all areas of the state. They . . . must continue to affect legislation in Sacramento . . . . They must be ready to assist local social studies councils and teachers wherever the program of social education is under attack." They must improve communication and cooperation with other education organizations.[48]

Goals

1. To increase awareness of the public at the local and state levels, of local decision makers and state legislators, and of educators at all levels, of the definition, need, and value of social studies as basic education for citizenship.
2. To enhance support by the public, and by decision makers at all levels, for social studies legislation and social studies programs.
3. To better coordinate efforts for common educational goals and for specific tasks with generalist organizations as well as other groups with special interests.
4. To more effectively disseminate information to the education, business, political, civic/public service communities, to the public and private sectors, about social studies education.

Structure

The CCSS Legislative Committee proposes the establishment of a statewide Political Action Cadre. Each local council will develop a structure to implement the stated goals based on the needs and resources of their area. This structure will be specifically detailed for the CCSS leadership and will be an ongoing element in each local organization, subject only to modifications as needs or tasks desired are changed.

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[48]This section of the *Legislative Handbook* was developed by Norma Wright and Lynda Stone.

Tasks of the Political Action Chairperson

1. Represents the local council on the CCSS Legislative Committee, or serves as a contact person for the committee.
2. Serves as a communications liaison between the CCSS Legislative Committee and the local council.
3. Serves as Chairperson of Local Political Action Committee.
4. Coordinates all local lobbying efforts with other Political Action Chairpersons where council jurisdictions overlap legislative districts or other political jurisdictions.

Tasks of the Local Political Action Committee

Local committee members will assume roles of five general categories:

1. Legislative contact persons
2. "Immediate Alert"/emergency operations group
3. "Road Show" presentors
4. Public relations/publicity committee
5. Media contacts

Given its unique structure, each local council, to the extent possible, will assume and complete such tasks as the following:

1. Establish a working relationship with each legislator and with the staff of each legislator within the council's jurisdiction. For effective ongoing contact, each representative must be regularly contacted by a specific designated individual (or individuals).
2. Report the results of each legislative contact meeting to the Political Action Chairperson using specific response forms. Each chairperson will in turn make regular reports to the CCSS First Vice President who shall submit them to our Legislative Representative.
3. Schedule group meetings for council members and others with local legislators and community leaders. The purpose of these would be to advocate our interests as well as spread the gospel. An example of a meeting is a Candidates' Night.
4. Set up a system of "immediate alert" using a legislative contact person and other members of the local council for emergency situations. The P.A.C. will contact all members regarding office visitations, letters, and phone calls. Persons to be contacted here include local representatives, members of key committees and other state officials.
5. Develop a system for local membership publicity and communications to all social studies teachers within the council's jurisdiction. Information disseminated would concern local services as well as legislative news.
6. Train personnel and develop "road show" general presentations about social studies, as well as presentations on specific issues, to be given to (a) parents, (b) school boards, (c) site councils, (d) PTA's,

(e) service clubs, (f) other community groups, (g) the general public.

Advertise the availability of these services to members and to other social studies teachers.

7. Develop a plan to solicit general community support by actively seeking opportunities to present these "road shows."

8. Establish a specific contact system with all local media and provide ongoing public relations materials to them.

9. Advertise specific events as well as general publicity about council purposes and activities and about social studies education in general.

10. Evaluate the ongoing political activities of each council, prepare a written report annually for the CCSS Legislative Committee and the CCSS Vice President for Political Action.

11. Search out new creative methods and strategies to implement the CCSS Political Action Goals on a continuing basis.

12. The CCSS Legislative Committee should review all evaluations and modify procedures where appropriate.

Example #7: Promoting Social Studies to Parents

Parental support of the social studies is needed for two basic reasons. First, parental advocacy frequently translates into school board policy and legislative mandates. Common to such diverse issues as school bond elections, bilingual education, and school athletic programs has been the salient impact of parental pressure on policy makers. When mobilized on behalf of a potent social studies curriculum in every grade, "parent power" can make a critical difference.

Parental support is also needed for another, vital reason that has less to do with political pressure than with learning: parents who support social studies at home probably increase the likelihood that their children will learn in social studies classes at school.[49] There are innumerable vehicles for gaining this home support. Some social studies supervisors work regularly with the local media to promote social studies programs to parents. Some teachers send a letter home at the beginning of each new social studies unit outlining the unit and urging parents to generate related resources, discussions, and activities. Daniel Roselle, writing to parents in *A Parent's Guide to the Social Studies*,[50] urges them to create a home social studies curriculum that pro-

[49]William B. Ware, and Malcolm Garber, "The Home Environment as a Predictor of School Achievement," *Theory Into Practice* (June 1982), Vol. 11, no. 3, 190–195; Benjamin S. Bloom, *All Our Children Learning* (New York: McGraw Hill, 1981), chapters 4 and 5; Herbert J. Walberg, "Families as Partners in Educational Productivity," *Phi Delta Kappan* (February 1984), vol. 65, no. 6, 397–400.

[50]Daniel Roselle, *A Parent's Guide to the Social Studies* (Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1974).

motes their children's success in the school's social studies curriculum. The following excerpt identifies eleven things parents can do toward this end. A teacher might want to distribute it at Parent's Night or send a copy home along with a unit outline. A social studies coordinator might want to distribute copies to school board members, along with the introduction and first two chapters of this book, after presenting awards to exceptional social studies students and teachers at a school board meeting.

> The ultimate responsibility for learning about the social studies rests with your child. However, there are at least eleven things that you as a parent may want to do to assist your child in this task.
>
> 1. Encourage your child to express his or her ideas on political, economic, and social matters freely at home—even if they differ from your own—and discuss these ideas with him or her on a basis of mutual respect for each other as individuals.
>
> 2. Subscribe to at least two magazines or newspapers that take widely different positions on issues so that your child can learn to become familiar with a variety of viewpoints. Or, to keep expenses down, use the variety of magazines and newspapers in the public library.
>
> 3. If you feel that freedom to learn is being interfered with or that books are being unfairly censored or that teachers', students', and the community's rights are being curtailed in your child's school, let the principal, the Board of Education, and others know where you stand.
>
> 4. Take an active part in PTA meetings, particularly when issues arise concerning the curriculum. And be as much (or more) concerned about the type of education your child is receiving today in the social studies as about whether or not "the courses are required to get him or her into college."
>
> 5. Work to see that all new social studies teachers employed to teach in your school are well qualified in the area of social studies. Unless the condition of your school system's finances is so critical as to make it inadvisable to do so, urge that social studies teachers be assigned to a full teaching load rather than a double-assignment involving non-social studies preparations. Let social studies teachers teach social studies, and football coaches teach football. Some talented individuals have the interest and ability to do both successfully; for others the situation can lead to poor teaching—or a losing football team.
>
> 6. Don't let significant holidays pass by unnoticed. There must be more to July 4th than firecrackers and more to Thanksgiving than turkey. Take time to discuss with your child the meaning of such holidays and their relationships to our lives today.
>
> 7. Go with your child to political, economic, and social events from which he or she can learn; for example, a session of a local political group; a taxpayers' meeting called to discuss a county budget; a public hearing concerning the construction of a road near your home; a debate about the

need for low-cost housing in the inner city.

8. Have available for reference at home: a well-written and accurate encyclopedia, two dictionaries (one of which should be at the level of your child's understanding), a volume on synonyms and antonyms, an atlas, and an up-to-date almanac. Encyclopedias can be costly, of course, and may not fit your budget; however, the other items are available in inexpensive paperbacks. And, since recordings often capture the moods and attitudes of individuals and groups in a society, keep a record player and records that reflect your child's tastes as well as your own.

9. Keep your eye on television programs (both figuratively and literally). Many of these programs deal effectively with such social studies subjects as life in the cities, rising population, cost of living, environmental pollution, social security for the aged, and international tensions. View such programs together with your child so that you share a common base of information and concern about issues.

10. Demonstrate to your child that you really do believe in the importance of good citizenship by taking actions with him or her against any attempts in your neighborhood to discriminate against people because of race, creed, sex, ethnic origin, or opinion.

11. Finally, let your children know that despite wars, inflation, corruption, and other conditions that plague our world, you have not lost faith in the ability of human beings to solve their problems. It is difficult for children to have faith in principles that their parents no longer accept. So, if you believe that by intelligence, compassion, and hard work, human beings can create a decent world, let your children know it. *Your* confidence may help *your children* to do it!

CONCLUSION

Citizenship today does not mean what it did 200, 100, or even 50 years ago. The world has changed. The globe has shrunk dramatically and the diversity of its cultures has become all the more apparent. The very pace of change, of modernization, has increased geometrically. Industrialized societies are scrambling to accommodate at once an information explosion and a new recognition that natural resources are limited. As the possibilities of genetic engineering, "star wars" exploits in space, and nuclear war among nations become ever more vivid, societies are pressed to clarify their values and priorities as never before.

In this milieu, it is clear that the demands on citizens are more numerous, more complex—in short, more difficult than before. No longer are voting and patriotism to the nation state sufficient. The "good citizen" today must be simultaneously a local, national, and global citizen. The "good citizen" must now be capable of membership in particular cultural and subcultural groups while extending respect and civil liberties to all cultural groups. The "good citizen" now must participate more actively and critically in the public debates and processes that precede and follow elections, rather than emerging only occasionally and momentarily from privacy to vote on alternatives already narrowed from the many to the few.

Let there be no doubt, this is a tall order. We have called citizens who are capable of this kind of citizenship "democratic" citizens. Democratic citizens are informed, skilled in the processes of a free society, and committed to democratic values. They are able, and feel obliged, to participate in social, political, and economic processes. Furthermore, their participation in these processes is shaped by three points of view, or perspectives: pluralist, global, and constructive.

Social studies education plays an exceedingly important role in the cultivation of these citizens. Indeed, accomplishing this task is *the* critical role of the social studies. Because even the youngest children are actively constructing the foundation of their civic identities, the social studies curriculum must be full and vibrant even in the earliest grades. Because the various components of the civic identity are being constructed throughout the school years, an engaging and challenging

social studies curriculum must be present in *each* grade. Because actual participation in democratic processes is the heart of sustaining and fulfilling the democratic experiment, rich participation experiences must be planned into the social studies curriculum throughout the school years. So critical is the role of the social studies that social studies educators must themselves, as a facet of their own citizenship participation, become articulate advocates of social studies education.

Central to being an effective advocate is recognizing that one has an unparalleled vantage point from which to survey one's own professional situation. The effective advocate locates therein the social studies programs and activities that need to be promoted and the exceptional participants who should be recognized. There are no recipes for advocating the social studies; rather, there are inventive professionals in diverse situations seeing and doing what is needed—what *they* see needs to be done that no one else may see.

RELATED RESOURCES IN THE ERIC SYSTEM

The resources below are available through the ERIC (Educational Resources Information Center) system. Each resource is identified by a six-digit number and two letters. "EJ" for journal articles, "ED" for other documents. Abstracts of and descriptive information about all ERIC documents are published in two cumulative indexes: *Resources in Education (RIE)* for ED listings and the *Current Index to Journals in Education (CIJE)* for EJ listings. This information is also accessible through three major on-line computer searching systems: DIALOG, ORBIT, and BRS.

Most ERIC documents are available for viewing in microfiche (MF) at libraries that subscribe to the ERIC collection. Microfiche copies of these documents can also be purchased from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS), Box 190, Arlington, VA 22210. Paper copies (PC) of some documents can also be purchased from EDRS. Complete price information is provided in this bibliography. When ordering from EDRS, be sure to list the ED number, specify either MF or PC price, and enclose a check or money order. Add postage to the MF or PC price at the rate of $1.55 for up to 75 microfiche or paper copy pages. Add $0.39 for each additional 75 microfiche or pages. One microfiche contains up to 96 document pages.

Journal articles are not available in microfiche. If your local library does not have the relevant issue of a journal, you may be able to obtain a reprint from University Microfilms International (UMI), 300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106. All orders must be accompanied by payment in full, plus postage, and must include the following information: title of the periodical, title of article, name of author, date of issue, volume number, issue number, and page number. Contact UMI for current price information.

Barr, Robert D. and others, *Defining the Social Studies. Bulletin 51* (Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1977). 126 pp. ED 146 083. EDRS price: MF-$0.97. Hard copy available from NCSS, 3501 Newark St., N.W. Washington, DC 20016, $7.25.

The bulletin probes the debate over the nature of social studies and considers the role of social studies in the curriculum. Presented in five chapters, it is intended to be a clarification of the field of social studies for textbook authors, curriculum developers, and educators. The influences of interest groups, evolution of the social studies, key issues during each stage of development, and a definition and analysis of social studies are discussed.

Davis, James E., ed., *Planning a Social Studies Program: Activities, Guidelines, and Resources* (Boulder, CO: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education and Social Science Education Consortium, 1983). 212 pp. ED 277 051. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$16.15.

A planning manual for teachers, parents, administrators, and students working on K–12 social studies curriculum development is presented. The manual discusses six problems facing social studies educators and then presents 12 sequenced group activities corresponding to steps in the model. A list of resources, sources of instructional objectives, sample formats for scope-and-sequence statements, publishers of social studies materials, and a paper on evaluation as an instructional tool complete the guide.

Haas, John D., *The Era of the New Social Studies* (Boulder, CO: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education and Social Science Education Consortium, 1977). 103 pp. ED 141 191. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$9.15.

Briefly discussing advancements in science and mathematics, the author focuses on the beginning of the revolution in social studies, discussing the changes in the conceptual foundations of social sciences and the government-funded curriculum materials projects. Three trends are identified: a heightened social consciousness, increased concern for values, and usage of a variety of classroom media and materials.

Hepburn, Mary A., ed., *Democratic Education in Schools and Classrooms Bulletin 70* (Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1983). ERIC Clearinghouse No. SO 015 202. 132 pp. EDRS price: MF-$0.97. Hard copy available from NCSS, 3501 Newark St., N.W., Washington, DC 20016. $10.25.

The bulletin sets forth the NCSS position that schools should practice democracy and be able to instruct through modeling. The statements stress that what is taught from textbooks about the advantages of democracy should be exhibited within the school and that the school experience should provide young people with an immediate example of a democratic system. Various chapters describe how teachers can restructure their classes and ways in which entire schools have been successful in increasing student participation in decision making.

Hertzberg, Hazel Whitman, *Social Studies Reform 1880–1980* (Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, 1981). 201 pp. ED 211 429. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$16.15.

The purposes, methodologies, and curricula of the social studies over the past 100 years are examined. This history was written to provide a useful background for current efforts to reform the social studies.

Morrissett, Irving, and others, "The SPAN Report: Analysis and Proposals for the 1980s," *Social Education* 44, no. 7 (Nov-Dec 1980), pp. 558–86, 653. EJ 235 284. Reprint available from UMI.

Four articles discuss work completed by the two-year project SPAN (Social Studies Priorities, Practices, and Needs). The first two articles present broad ideas about the current and future status of social studies, the third outlines major recommendations, and the last presents a social roles rationale and framework to increase student learning and interest.

Morrissett, Irving, and others, eds., *Social Studies in the 1980s. A Report of Project SPAN* (Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development; Boulder, CO: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 1981). 157 pp. ED 221 449. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$7.40.

Selected and condensed portions of five reports prepared by Project SPAN (Social Studies Priorities, Practices, and Needs) are presented. The purpose of Project SPAN was to describe and assess the current and recent state of social studies/social science education, designate desired states to which social studies might or should aspire, and shape recommendations for achieving those desired states. A social roles approach, one of the several major alternatives to the current pattern of social studies, is described.

Remy, Richard and Turner, Mary Jane, *Basic Citizenship Competencies Project. Final Report* (Columbus, OH: Mershon Center; Boulder, CO: Social Science Education Consortium, 1980). 165 pp. ED 200 459. EDRS price: MF-$0.97/PC-$12.65.

This report describes dissemination efforts of the Basic Citizenship Competencies Project. These efforts included encouraging organizations to co-publish project products, submitting articles to education-related journals, making presentations at public meetings, and conducting workshops.

Shaver, James P., and others, *An Interpretive Report on the Status of Pre-College Social Studies Education Based on Three NSF-Funded Studies* (Washington, DC: National Council for the Social Studies, 1978). 28 pp. ED 164 363. EDRS price. MF-$0.97/PC-$3.90.

Findings of three studies to define the status and needs of social studies education demonstrated that only 10 to 20 percent of social studies teachers used New Social Studies materials and that the textbook was the dominant tool of instruction. Teachers believed that inquiry teaching is too demanding of students and an unproductive use of instructional time. The authors suggest that since teachers were found to be the key to student learning, they should be more involved in curriculum development.

Smith, Theodore, ed., *History-Social Science Framework for California Public Schools. Kindergarten through Grade Twelve* (Sacramento, CA: California State Department of Education, 1981). 62 pp. ED 213 626. EDRS price: MF-$0.97. Hard copy available from California State Department of Education, P.O. Box 271, Sacramento, CA 95802. $2.25.

According to this framework, the central purpose of history/social science education is to prepare students to be humane, rational, understanding, and participating citizens in a diverse society and in an increasingly interdependent world. The criteria for evaluating instructional materials in history and the social sciences, sections of the Education Code requiring the observance of special events, and the anti-dogmatism policy of the California State Board of Education are provided.

Social Studies: A Maryland Curricular Framework (Baltimore, MD: Maryland State Department of Education, 1983). ERIC Clearinghouse No. SO 015 189.

Local Maryland school systems are provided with a structure for developing and designing comprehensive K–12 social studies programs. The material is organized around philosophy, goals, scope and sequence, and classroom instructional units. Each component is described in terms of its purpose, specific elements, and possible assessment and development. Sample graduation competency requirements and abridged National Council for the Social Studies curriculum guidelines are provided.